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EXTRACTS

From Cousin's Report on Common School Education in Holland. Translated by Leonard Horner, with a preface and appendix, pp. 295. London, 1838.

The appreciation of statistical information is gradually gaining ground. General statements can be denied, and never meet, as is right, with complete credence. It is therefore necessary, when any great and important matter is in hand, and when to state the particular facts is to convince, that the information should be as minute as possible; vague generalities should be quitted, and the exact quantity of particulars of which a general avowment is made up, should be shown. It would be a difficult, perhaps an impossible task for a Society, having other matters in hand, and with but limited funds, to conduct inquiries extending over the whole face of the country. But as the farmer draws his sample at hazard out of the heap of grain, so can this Society, upon any hand on which it is anxious to ascertain the fact, investigate closely and with minuteness districts in different parts of the country, and offer the result of their inquiries as fair indications of the general truth."—p. 25.

"Drawing has hitherto been looked upon as a polite accomplishment, in which it is graceful to be a proficient, but which is altogether unconnected with the main objects of education. It, however, affords great aid in defining, expressing, and retaining certain ideas over which words have but a very limited power; and must assist much in the formation of habits of attention, from the circumstance of its requiring so much care and accuracy of observation in order faithfully to represent in lines the form of an object. Added to this, the prosecution of it must cultivate those faculties which enable us to derive pleasure from the beautiful in nature and in art; and all objects by which persons so educated may be surrounded will assume a beauty and a harmony which are not otherwise to be found. The furniture, the pictures, the prints, the color of the rooms and house, the arrangement of the garden, will all be indicative of taste. Elegance is not necessarily connected with expense; it proceeds from a power of judicious selection and arrangement of objects, and may reign in the humblest dwelling; it is the mark of a cultivated intellect, and not of wealth."—*Ib. p.* 7.

"The powers of observing with accuracy, and communicating with clearness and precision our own observations to others, are, in intellectual education, objects most desiriable to be obtained. In speaking of observation, we allude to the direct exercise of the senses upon objects presented to them, and we are not aware that this is, in any manner, immediately cultivated in our schools. Objects, in fact, are, as much as possible, removed, and abstract ideas substituted; as though to visible and tangible objects, no introduction could be of any service. In order that we may be able to communicate how we have been affected by an object, it is necessary not only that we should see and touch, but that we should be sensible—that we should take notice of the manner in which we have been affected; it is necessary that we should discriminate between our sensations, and be enabled to assign determinate names for them; objects have size, form, color, weight, texture, &c. In order to be able to predicate in detail with regard to any object which has been presented to us, it is necessary that we should have the habit of ascertaining what our peculiar sensations have been upon these points with regard to it, and this habit may be formed by teaching. Without instruction, most persons look upon objects too much in the mass, without taking note of more than one or two of the more prominent properties. To draw the attention thus early to the properties of objects, many of which require close attention to be perceptible, must have a very beneficial effect upon the understanding—exciting it to examination, interesting it in common objects, and rendering it unsatisfied with a superficial observation. If this be the best method of gaining clear ideas, precision and readiness of expression are at the same time facilitated by it. When words are learned from the spelling-book, sometimes with, and sometimes without explanation, they are gained with considerable, and retained with still greater difficulty, while learning to apply them is a second task, which is left to be effected by chance."—*Ib. p.* 6.

"Not only the number of parochial schools is inadequate, but the kind of school which is built is far below, in most cases, the fair wants of teacher and scholars. There is usually but one room for the children, and that of the most inferior description. This might be tolerated, were not the old practice still obstinately adhered to, of cooping up children—young, cheerful, exulting children,—with all their being fresh and glowing within them, for seven or eight mortal hours within its prison precincts, its heavy and often fœtid atmosphere. No matter how the summer breezes may play abroad—no matter how its laughing flowers may peep in at their half closed casement—no matter how its joyous birds may mock the captives at their desks within—no matter how blue the sky, or how green the sward, or how bright or playful the brook gurgling beside it; there they are, and there they must remain, till the 'task' be duly thrashed out—till the treadmill penance be to the last minute performed; stifling in their little hearts all its natural impulses, planted there for the wisest purposes; refusing all sympathy with all those beautiful and happy things about them; chained to 'learning' as the galley-slave to his *boule;* and finally compelled to consider it as a privation and a punishment, when it ought to have been felt as a gift and a reward. The injury to their whole nature, by such arrangement, is excessive. If the limbs and lungs are not allowed their play, not less is the intellect clouded, and the will rendered sulky, listless, or sour. These long, long hours of captivity are the causes of half the irritation, resistance, and punishments in school. Send them forth at once master and all, on the fine spring morning, or the long summer's afternoon, to the green plot before the school, covered with flowers of their own planting; under the tree familiar to their fathers' recollections, when they too were children like themselves; and there you will have some chance of keeping their attention, not forced, but yielded with a loving heart; then, indeed, you may speak of Nature, with her page wide spread before you, and pray, secure of the piety of your audience, with such a temple over you as God's own glorious sky. I never heard prayer fall with such sweetness and force as when uttered by those small innocent voices, under the canopy of some noble old tree. The

ancients knew something of the human heart; their philosophy was not a matter of words; they took nature with them for an ally, they taught and proselytized in the open air. Yet such is habit, and its distortions, that, still in Scotland, to this obvious alternation there exists the utmost objection. This, especially where there is but one teacher, is a great evil: It becomes, in many cases, direct, absolute imprisonment. The moment the class terminates, the child is consigned to neither play nor study, but to the worst of all moods for a youthful mind—restrained excitement or contented listlessness. Nor are the interests or the functions of the teacher more considered. Instead of being allowed to profit by those natural applications—instead of having to instruct a succession of diligent and attentive pupils, he is set that most difficult of all tasks, to teach one party whilst he is controlling another—acting the part of policeman and instructer at one and the same time. Whether the school room affords sufficient accommodation or not, such arrangement would be of infinite benefit; where the accommodation is bad, it becomes indispensable. Let every school house have a small quantity of ground annexed to it, for horticultural purposes; when one class has finished its lessons, let it be dismissed to the garden, and another take its place; a succession of classes may thus follow, till the whole school has passed through the hands of the teacher. The first class will then return fresh for renewed mental labor, with mind and body eager for exertion. There will be no apathy or tumult then. The lesson will be learnt rapidly and well, said clearly and actively. The teacher will have but one duty to fulfil. He will be enabled at all times to teach his pupils, and seldom required to punish them."—*Ib. pp.* 39, 40. [*School Visiter.*

BARON CUVIER.

We abridge from the Foreign Quarterly Review the following narrative of the life and labors of this distinguished man.

The patient industry, with which in the privacy of retirement, he accomplished those stores of information, which he afterwards turned to such account, we would especially commend to the imitation of youth. There is a tendency in our age and country to premature display. Our youth are so eager to enter on the business of life, that they leave themselves not sufficient leisure for preparation, and this fetters all their subsequent efforts. Cuvier lived in obscurity till his twenty-sixth year, and he died in his 63d, but how long a life was compressed into this brief space measured not by years, but by the durable memorials which he has left behind him.

"The early youth of this distinguished man was strongly imbued with sparks of the flame which burned so brightly in after life, and the naturalist, the legislator, and the statesman, may be seen and recognized in the boy, the student, and the tutor. Every circumstance of his young life seems to have had a strong bearing on the rest; his family had been the victims of religious persecution, and were much impoverished when driven to settle at Montbeliard; his delicate health gave him the habit of seeking amusement in quieter pursuits than those preferred by the stronger and more robust; he learned early lessons of discipline and order at the knees of his firm yet gentle mother; it was she who, while nurturing every good and moral feeling, and watching with judicious care and affection over the ailings of infancy till they were converted into an active and wholesome temperament, yet accustomed him to employment and obedience; she it was who taught him his first hymns, and took such advantage of his capabilities, that he always went to school better prepared with his task than any other of the pupils. Accordingly we find one of the strongest feelings in Baron Cuvier's mind, was his unceasing affection for his mother, the admirable guide of his earliest years; and domestic happiness thus imprinted on his recollection, was sought for by him as the greatest solace of after-life.

Having distinguished himself at the schools of Montbeliard, George Cuvier became one of the candidates for the Theological University of Tubingen. The theme he composed on that occasion deserved to be ranked among the highest of the contending productions, and every one round him felt certain that he would be chosen; the animosity however of one of the professors whom he had ridiculed in some youthful sally, prevented his entering the class elected for Tubingen, and his destination was consequently changed. This early disappointment and mortification were deeply felt by the young scholar, who had not lived long enough to know that what we consider misfortunes often prove the greatest blessings. Cuvier's, however, was not a mind to be baffled by one disappointment, however severe; and as theological studies were now useless, he had more leisure for others; to one of these he devoted himself with a zeal and delight which amounted almost to a passion. Buffon had thrown over him a spell which he had also shed over so many others, by the eloquent magic of language, the richness of imagination, and the lofty importance which he attached to the study of natural history. Scarcely of an age to appreciate them to their full extent, the writings of this extraordinary man had yet taken fast hold of the youthful Cuvier; every spare moment was devoted to their perusal, and not only did he copy all the figures contained in the edition lent to him by a relative, but he even drew also the animals of which there were merely written descriptions. His drawings, which however were not confined to the representation of animals, were laid before the Princess Royal of Wurtemburg, and honorable mention was made of his talents. The Princess was interested, the reigning Duke, Charles of Wurtemburg, arriving soon after, she submitted the drawings to him. He sent for the boy, and on examining him, was so delighted with his answers, that taking him under his peculiar protection, he gave him a presentation to his academy at Stuttgart.

The school was military, the scholars wore uniforms, and were under the orders of a colonel and a major; * but the instructions were by no means confined to those of a military nature; classics, philosopy of all kinds, mathematics, commerce, the management of forests, finance, administration, medicine, law, the fine arts, oratory, metaphysics, natural history, in all its branches, and many other things were there taught, almost all of which were followed with ardour by young Cuvier, of whom it was even then remarked, that he was not contented with merely skimming the surface, or learning by rote, but understood the philosophy of the sciences he studied.

Natural history was still a favorite pursuit, but it was considered by him as a relaxation from the severer subjects of the law, the leading object of his mental exercises. Four consecutive examinations in various branches of learning, embraced by the upper classes of the academy, and in which he eminently distinguished himself, procured him the Cross of Chevalier, an order of merit which was rarely bestowed, and which placed the wearer under the immediate direction of the Duke, as destined for the highest departments in the administration of his native country. That country, however, soon became disorganized; his patron was obliged to abandon it; and he himself after a short visit to Montbeliard, accepted the office of tutor in the family of a nobleman in Lower Normandy. This was indeed a change when compared to the views in which Cuvier had been educated at Stuttgart; but the tutor in the house of the Count d'Hericy was not a dependant; he was considered as a friend, had opportunities given him for his own improvement, and mingled with the society which visited at the house. It proved in fact an advantage to the subject of our memoir, inasmuch as it became the stepping-stone to that career in which he afterwards immortalized himself. It was an advantage also in another sense, for it sheltered him in those times of anarchy and horror, when the good, the learned, and the innocent, were the especial victims of popular fury. In the quiet retreat of the Chateau de Fiquinville, his amusements consisted of drawing, dissecting, and examining various objects of natural history; and his vicinity to the sea caused him particularly to give his attention to the inhabitants of that element. Accustomed to examine every thing thoroughly, to follow it through all its bearings, to generalize the views to which it gave birth, to seize on its most important features, and patiently study the minutest details, not to lose himself in these, but by amassing, to gain a better compensation of the whole; the few years thus passed had doubtless the happiest influence over the rest of Cuvier's life."

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"It was in 1795 that our young naturalist was drawn from his obscurity. Ill health and straighten-

* We particularly mention this because a report has existed of Mr. Cuvier having at one time been in the army. The nature of that academy, and a visit once paid by him with his father to his former regiment, when on duty in the neighborhood, form the sole foundation for this report.

ed circumstances, two heavy disappointments, the councils and cares of his admirable mother, his own excellent German education, and his intercourse at Stuttgart with those who were distinguished for character and talent, together with the quiet shelter of his Norman retreat, which gave time for digesting his rapid and extended course of study, and the opportunities thrown in his way for the indulgence of a taste already formed—all these had purified and prepared M. Cuvier for the glorious career which lay before him. The means by which he came to Paris wore all the appearances of chance; a scientific and distinguished man, M. Tessier, had taken refuge from the turbulent scenes passing in the capitol close to the Norman residence of M. Cuvier; a society established for the discussion of agricultural questions, of which the latter was secretary, naturally attracted the attention of a man whose life and labors had been devoted to it. M. Tessier was present at the meetings; the penetration of the young secretary soon discovered him, and the discrimination of the latter prompted him to write to his friends in Paris, stating that he had found a pearl in Normandy, and requesting their help in making its value known to the world. The perusal of some of M. Cuvier's writings inspired those friends with the same wish; the education of the pupil was now finished; M. Tessier offered him hospitality when it became safe to proceed to the capital; and the letters of Geoffroy St. Hilaire were most pressing. At the age then of twenty-six, this master of science entered the metropolis of France, where he made the most rapid steps towards the pre-eminence which he afterwards attained: natural history was no longer to form a relaxation to other studies, it was henceforth to be the business of his life; and thus was his destiny changed for the third and last time. He was immediately made a member of the Commission des Arts, through M. Millond de Grand Maison, then professor of natural history to the central school of the Pantheon, and at the earnest solicitations of M. Geoffroy, M. Mertrud, who had been appointed to the chair of comparative anatomy at the Jardin des Plantes, agreed to take him for his assistant; the more desirable, as it led to a residence on the spot. No sooner did Cuvier find himself thus established, than he sent for all who remained of his family, viz: his father and younger brother Fredrick, who was married, to join him and share his approaching prosperity."

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"Four years had scarcely elasped when the assistant of M. Mertrud began to publish his immortal lectures on comparative anatomy, the second edition of which, in its commencement, now lies before us, and to which we shall return. Those lectures were closely connected with that noblest monument to his memory, the cabinet of anatomy in the Jardin des Plantes, or Jardin du Roi. Whatever Cuvier taught in his lectures he endeavored to demonstrate by positive proof and aided by zealous assistants, formed under his own tuition, he brought together the richest collection that has ever yet been amassed. This collection, and the labors directed to it, led to stil greater discoveries with regard to geology, and advanced to maturity those ideas which had frequently occurred to him in a very early, and in fact in every stage of his investigation. Considering that each being formed a complete system destined by nature to play a distinct part, and all the portions of which are linked to each other, Cuvier conceived that so necessary a co-relation of forms must exist between them, that none of them could be modified without influencing the whole, and that each modification suffices in itself to make known the rest; he thence concluded that each bone of the skeleton of an animal must bear the characters of its class, order, genus, and even species. Applying this doctrine to the determination of various bones which had been found under the soil, he it was who first ascertained that these relics belong to extinct races. Further research led to a fact still less anticipated, which was, that the differences between recent and fossil animals augment according to the age of the strata in which they lie, and become a chronological table of the formation of the earth."

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"As the cabinet of anatomy was an accompaniment to M. Cuvier's lectures and researches on that point, he in like manner formed a collection of fossil remains, which is now the finest in the world; a great many were presents, for the spirit he had awakened spread in every direction, and all were eager to assist him. Besides these, he purchased a great number at an enormous expense to himself, and placed all in the galleries of the Museum, merely receiving in return some of the duplicate books from the library of that institution. The last edition of M. Cuvier's work on fossil remains contains the description of 120 species of mammalia belonging to all orders, except Quadrumana (a discovery which has taken place since his death;) and his work on fishes, had he lived to finish it, would in itself have contained all the fossil remains of that class. The localities, the formation in which these fragments were found, are all noted with the utmost precision; and such was the perfection to which he had arrived by means of his indefatigable perseverance, both in the study of recent and fossil anatomy, that it was sufficient for him to see one bone, in order to determine, not only the great division, but the genus to which it belonged."

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"The memoirs composing the work to which we have been alluding, were published at separate times, and were first collected into a whole in the year of 1811; we have seen that M. Cuvier only commenced his labors in 1795, when he was called to Paris. This interval had produced many events of the utmost importance to himself as well as others, and natural history had been far from forming the sole object of his exertions. 1796 he was created a member of the newly organized National Institute. In 1798 proposals were made to him to accompany the expedition to Egypt; and whether to except or reject them was a hard struggle: on the one hand, he was tempted by the love of travelling and research, the delight of exploring a new and comparatively unknown country; and on the other, he felt that his presence at home was absolutely necessary, in order to continue the labors he had so happily begun; the latter alternative prevailed, and fortunately for science he remained at the Jardin des Plantes In 1800 he was appointed Professor at the College de France, when he resigned his place at the Pantheon; in the same year he was also made Secretary to the Academy of Sciences, an office which was resigned every third year. In 1802 he was elected one of the six inspectors-general of education, and was sent to Marsellies, &c. to found the Royal Colleges; in the following year the secretaryships of the Institute were made perpetual, and M. Cuvier was appointed to that of the Academy of Sciences with an increase of salary; in order, as Napoleon said, to enable the secretaries to entertain distinguished foreigners at their houses. On receiving this M. Cuvier resigned his inspectorship. Another, for him, most important event took place this year, namely, his marriage with Madame Duvaucel, a step that ensured him the most uninterrupted conjugal happiness for life. In 1804 a son was born, but shortly after died. In 1808 he was named Counsellor to the University; in 1809 he was sent to organize the academies of the Italian States; in 1811 he received the title of Chevalier, and visited Holland for the purpose of establishing and directing the academies of that country.

"The mere mention of the places thus early held by M. Cuvier, will show how rapidly his duties increased; but amid them all he never for one moment lost sight of the great work we have already mentioned; viz: the classification of the Regne Animal, the increase of the collection of zoology, the formation of the collection of comparative anatomy, the improvement of his published lectures from his own observations, the collections of fossil remains, and the study of these and the strata in which they lie; and yet each appointment had brought with it an amount of occupation, which an ordinary man would have thought singly sufficient. As secretary to the Institute he had become the biographer of the Academy of Sciences, a portion of his labors in itself sufficient to immortalize him. The Eloges, written and read by him in public, are now collected into three octavo volumes, and materials exist for a fourth. In these works we see a mind equal to the subject of his memoir; and private occurrences when they bear upon these services, yet with a delicacy almost amounting to tenderness, allowance is made for the influence of circumstances; and the beauties and perfections of a character are placed in the most prominent light. In these, as in all his other writings, as well as actions, M. Cuvier shows himself to have been perfectly free from jealousy; every one received the due meed of praise even for labors rivalling his own, for if science was advanced he cared not by whom. The beauty of the language and the eloquence of the style make these Eloges perfect models of composition.

"Besides the Eloges, M. Cuvier was charged with constant reports to the Academy upon each memoir or work submitted to it; and in 1802 he was deputed to the task of giving an annual analysis of the transactions of that body, a duty which he continu-

ed to perform to the last year of his life. There is no part of his works which so completely shows the universality of his comprehension and acquirements as those reports. Not only was he obliged to understand each subject, but to embrace its connexions with the past, and its bearings upon the future; the whole range of natural sciencies came before him, and seems to have been enough to fill up his life without leaving room for his own great endeavors. His language was so clear and precise in those analyses, that many scientific men were afterwards glad to adopt his descriptions rather than their own for revealing their discoveries to the world. They have been thrown together and published as a suppliment to the edition of Buffon arranged by M. Richard, of which they form two octavo volumes. Besides these Cuvier wrote, by command of the Emperor, a complete history of natural science from the year 1789 to 1800.

"In 1817 appeared the first edition of the Regne Animal, or the completion of the *Tableau élémentarie*: it was at first hesitatingly adopted in Germany, but it is now become the great classical book for the study of zoology. Since the year 1811 the life of M. Cuvier had been chequered by the death of his children, and by a fresh routine of appointments: in 1813 he had been sent to Rome to reorganize the University there, a more difficult task than which can scarcely be imagined, for so decided a protestant as himself could hardly expect to be well received by Catholics. His natural tact and benevolence, his enlightened tolerance and indulgence however, so far succeeded, that even when the influence of France ceased in that city, most of the meliorations introduced by Cuvier were retained. It was in this year that the Legislative powers and acquirements were first drawn forth, and his early studies for this, his former destination, brought into use, in consequence of his appointment as Maitre des Requettes. Such was the confidence reposed in him, that the Emperor not only intended making him tutor to his son, and ordered him to draw up a list of books as a preliminary step, but sent him on an extraordinary mission to the left bank of the Rhine, in order to take the measures best calculated to oppose the invasion of France. In each of those honorable employments he was disappointed by the rapid and unforseen advancement of the allied troops, and by the ruin of Napoleon. A greater proof however of the Emperor's penetration could scarcely have been given; he did not view M. Cuvier solely as the man of science, but he saw in him that genius which adapts itself to all exigencies, that uncompromising integrity which accompanied all his actions, and that firmness of purpose which had been one of the secrets of his advancement. In 1814 he made him a Counsellor of State; and to the honor of Louis XVIII., he was by him reappointed to the same office, and occasionally employed both then and afterwards as commissionarie du Roi; he was also named Chancellor of the University, and would he have changed his religion, he might have received the office of Grand Master. The first important use which Cuvier made of his legislative authority was in 1815, when he procured considerable amendments in the criminal laws, and of those belonging to the Prevotal Courts. Many families have reason to bless his interference in the latter, for had he not opposed some of the clauses with all his energy, and persuaded certain of his colleagues to do the same, offences long passed over would have been dragged to light, and the victims would have been the innocent and unsuspecting.

"In 1828 appeared the first and second volumes of the great work on Ichthyology, to the peculiar study of which M. Cuvier had been led by his always progressing preparations for his great treaties on Comparative Anatomy. In the mean while he had been advancing in honors and places under the Bourbons, though not perhaps so rapidly as if Napoleon had still been the ruler of France, on account of the religion to which he steadily adhered. In 1818 Louis offered him the Ministry of the Interior, but he thought proper to decline it. At that period he made his first visit to England, on occurrence of which he delighted to converse, and the animated recollection of which seemed to be always fresh in his memory. It was also in 1818 that he was elected Member of the Académie Francaise, and his discourse on his reception was remarkable for its extreme beauty and elegance."

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"In 1828, besides the two volumes on Ichthyology, he published the Latin notes and annotations on Pliny's Natural History, and it was also in this same year that the severest calamity which could befal a parent, gave a different coloring to his feelings, and tinged the whole of his after-life with sadness; this was the death of his daughter, the only surviving child of four. Mademoiselle Cuvier died of rapid consumption, a few days after that which had been appointed for her marriage. This gifted creature had been the light and joy not only of his existence, but of all around her; so talented, so excellent, so beautiful, and so affectionate, that it was no wonder that the mighty heart which had withstood all else with firmness, was torn asunder by her loss; Cuvier secluded himself for a time, but roused to a sense of his duties by a consciousness of their importance, he worked harder than ever, hoping by this means to cure a wound which never healed. The affectionate cares of his admirable wife and step-daughter were if possible increased; and he returned their devoted affection with interest. It was perhaps owing to their efforts, that he was enabled to pursue his studies; a proof of which perseverance came out in 1829, in the form of a second edition of the Regne Animal, containing various modifications and additions, so as to bring it on a level with the latest discoveries. To this succeeded the third and fourth volumes of Ichthyology. In 1830 he resumed his lectures at the College de France, published volumes five and six of the Ichthyology, and in a short interval of relaxation, paid a second visit to England. He had long received permission to do so from his sovereign, a permission which, from the multitude and importance of his places, it was not only difficult to obtain, but still more so to enjoy; delays had taken place in consequence of some affairs at the Institute, so that by chance he started precisely on the morning of that day, in which the last revolution in France was declared. He had rejected every idea of any serious outbreaking of the spirit of discontent, which the famous ordonnances had evidently stirred up; he was of opinion, that it was a chronic malady which would take time to cure, and leaving his wife under the care of her only surviving son and family, he departed wholly unconscious of the projected explosion. No certain intelligence of the great change reached him until he arrived at Calais, where he remained in order to receive from the capital, news on which he could rely. That he could not return with papers signed by Charles X. was very evident, and when Madame Cuvier wrote to him that peace was restored, but that all was uncertainty, he proceeded to England. The good people of his country could scarcely be convinced that he had not purposely fled from Paris to avoid the loss of his head; but Cuvier had nothing to fear, and the simple fact that he had left his wife behind, was quite sufficient to disprove to all who knew him, any thing like intentional absence on his part during this revolutionary storm. A diplomatist can scarcely find credit when he makes a strait forward statement; and the circumstances being of so suspicious a nature, the scientific views with which M. Cuvier really came to this country were thought to be a mere pretext. Accordingly he was assailed by condolences and compassion, which he received with surprise and almost amusement. He was, however, uneasy because he was not on the spot, and instead of remaining six weeks as he intended, he quitted London at the end of a fortnight. In 1831 appeared the seventh and eighth volumes of his Ichthyology; in 1832 he was created a Peer, was made President of the entire Council of State, re-opened his course of lectures at the College de France on the History and progress of Science, delivered the most impressive and remarkable introductory discourse which had ever saluted the ears of his audience; was seized by paralysis the same evening, and after five days struggle, closed his earthly labors. Honors were paid to his remains such as perhaps have never before been paid to the savant; honors that gratify the agonized survivors, though they fail to impart consolation; this can alone be found in the reflection, that the loved one is enjoying happiness far beyond even our comprehension."

Educator.

SCENE IN A SCHOOL ROOM.

TEACHER, Mr. Consequence.

PUPIL, George.

Geo.—Mr. C., please show me how to work this question.

Mr. C.—Read it.

(George reads.)—"In a cask whose head diameter is two feet and the bung diameter two and a half feet, and length three feet, how many wine gallons?"

Mr. C.—Well, what does your rule say?

Geo.—"To the head diameter add two thirds the difference between the head and bung diameter for a mean diameter, square the mean diameter, multiply by the length and divide by 294 for wine gallons."

Mr. C.—Very well, sir, go on and work by the rule.

Geo.—I have done it as the rule directs, sir.

Mr. C.—Well, and can you not produce the required result?

Geo.—Sir?

Mr. C.—Can you not get the answer?

Geo.—Yes, sir; but——

Mr. C.—But what, sir?

Geo.—231 inches make a wine gallon, I don't know for what reason I must divide by 294.

Mr. C.—Don't your rule tell you to do so, sir.

Geo.—Yes, sir.

Mr. C.—Very well, sir, that's reason enough; go to your seat, and don't come to me with any more of your eccentricities.

[George goes to his seat, muttering as he goes, "I wonder what eccentricities mean!"]

Immediately succeeding this, is seen a dirty little urchin cautiously approaching Mr. C. with a book and slate in one hand, and after sundry preparatory performances with the other, such as scratching his head and passing his coat sleeve along the under extremity of his proboscis, he says,

Mr. C., please tell me what is the difference between a right-angled triangle and an oblique angled triangle.

Mr. C.—Why a right angled triangle is bounded by three right sides, one of which is perpendicular to some one of the other two, and therefore it has one right angle; but an oblique angled-triangle has all of its sides oblique. Do you understand it now, sir?

Yes, sir; I don't know, sir.

[He goes to his seat as wise as he was before he left it.]

SCENE IN ANOTHER SCHOOL ROOM.

Teacher, Mr. Thoroughfare.

Pupil.—Mr. T., please tell me why I must divide by 294 instead of 231 in finding the dimensions of the cask?

Mr. T.—The rule tells you to add a part of the bung diameter to the head diameter, does it not?

P.—Yes, sir.

Mr. T.—What is that done for?

P.—To make the cask as large at the head as it is in any other part.

Mr. T.—In what shape will your cask then be?

P.—In the shape of a cylinder.

Mr. T.—What do you then do?

P.—Square the diameter.

Mr. T.—What shape will that bring it into?

P.—Into the shape of a square prism.

Mr. T.—Is a square stick whose side is equal to the diameter of a round one larger than the round stick?

P.—Yes, sir.

Mr. T.—Then you have made your cask too large by squaring the diameter; have you not?

P.—Yes, sir.

Mr. T.—Then you ought to do something to reduce it to its proper size; ought you not?

P.—Yes, sir.

Mr. T.—Well, the difference between 231 and 294 is calculated to make up for the difference between the round cask and the square one; but if you had multiplied the square of the diameter by 7834, what would that have done?

P.—It would have cut off the square corners and made it in the shape of a cylinder.

Mr. *T.*—True, it would have reduced it to its proper size and then you might have divided by 231 for wine gallons. You may take your seat and try it both ways and see if they will produce the same answers.

A Pedagogue.

FURTHER EXTRACTS FROM CHANNING ON SELF-CULTURE.

ON THE UTILITY OF GOOD BOOKS.

It is chiefly through books that we enjoy intercourse with superior minds, and these invaluable means of communication are in the reach of all. In the best books, great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours.—God be thanked for books. They are the voices of the distant and the dead, and make us heirs of the spiritual life of past ages. Books are the true levellers. They give to all who will faithfully use them, the society, the spiritual presence of the greatest of our race. No matter how poor I am. No matter though the prosperous of my own time will not enter my obscure dwelling. If the Sacred Writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakspeare to open to me the worlds of imagination, and the workings of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionship, and I may become a cultivated man, though excluded from what is called the best society in the place where I live.

To make this means of culture effectual, a man must select good books, such as have been written by right-minded and strong-minded men, real thinkers, who, instead of diluting by repetition what others say, have something to say for themselves, and write to give relief to full earnest souls; and these works must not be skimmed over for amusement, but read with fixed attention and a reverential love of truth. In selecting books, we may be aided much by those who have studied more than ourselves. But after all, it is best to be determined in this particular a good deal by our own tastes. The best books for a man are not always those which the wise recommend, but oftener those which meet the peculiar wants, the natural thirst of his mind, and therefore awaken interest and rivet thought. And here it may be well to observe, not only in regard to books but in other respects, that self-culture must vary with the individual. All means do not equally suit us all. A man must unfold himself freely, and should respect the peculiar gifts or biases by which nature has distinguished him from others.—Self-culture does not demand the sacrifice of individuality. It does not regularly apply an established machinery, for the sake of torturing every man into one rigid shape, called perfection. As the human countenance, with the same features in us all, is diversified without end in the race, and is never the same in any two individuals, so the human soul, with the same grand powers and laws, expands into an infinite variety of forms, and would be wofully stinted by modes of culture requiring all men to learn the same lesson, or to bend to the same rules.

I know how hard it is to some men, especially to those who spend much time in manual labor, to fix attention on books. Let them strive to overcome the difficulty, by choosing subjects of deep interest, or by reading in company with those whom they love. Nothing can supply the place of books. They are cheering or soothing companions in solitude, illness, affliction.—The wealth of both continents would not compensate for the good they impart. Let every man, if possible, gather some good books under his roof, and obtain access for himself and family to some social library. Almost any luxury should be sacrificed to this.

One of the very interesting features of our times, is the multiplication of books, and their distribution through all conditions of society. At a small expense, a man can now possess himself of the most precious treasures of English literature. Books, which were formerly confined to a few by their costliness, are now accessible to the multitude; and in this way a change of habits is going on in society, highly favorable to the culture of the people. Instead of depending

on casual rumor and loose conversation for most of their knowledge and objects of thought: instead of forming their judgments in crowds, and receiving their chief excitement from the voices of neighbors, men are now learning to study and reflect alone, to follow out continuously, to determine for themselves what shall engage their minds, and to call to their aid the knowledge, original views, and reasonings of men of all countries and ages; and the results must be a deliberateness, and independence of judgment, and a thoroughness and extent of information, unknown in former times. The diffusion of these silent teachers, books, through the whole community, is to work greater effects than artillery, machinery, and legislation. Its peaceful agency is to supersede stormy revolution. The culture, which it is to spread, whilst an unspeakable good to the individual, is also to become the stability of nations.

SCHOOLS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent of common schools, for this state has been lately published.

The State, excluding the city and county of Philadelphia, is divided into 1033 school districts. Of these, 840 have availed themselves of the provisions of the common school law, of which 628 have made reports. Assuming the reports of the 628 districts as a standard, it is estimated that there are in the 840 districts, 5269 schools, which are taught about six months of the year. The whole number of teachers employed in these schools, is 4753 males, and 1974 females, at average wages of $18,95 per month for the former, and $11,30 for the latter. The whole number of scholars in these schools is 233,719. The average number of scholars in each school is 42, and the average cost of each scholar per quarter $1,-39 1-2, or $5,58 per year. The appropriations from the State for 1839, is $308,919; of this sum, Philadelphia city and county receives $39,578, and the 840 districts, 214,944 dollars. The tax assessed in these 840 districts, for school purposes, amounts to 385,788 dollars, making the whole sum raised 600,732 dollars, or 114 dollars to each of the 5269 schools.

"The great principle of the school system in this State is, that an appropriation equal to one dollar for each taxable inhabitant is made by the Commonwealth to be paid to districts who comply with the terms of the law, and who levy a tax equal to sixty-five cents upon each taxable inhabitant within the limits of the districts. This tax each district may increase at its option to any amount not exceeding $1,96 to each taxable inhabitant. The people of each district elect six directors, two of whom retire annually, and their place is supplied by a new election. The Board receives the public money, levies the tax, provides the school-house, and disburses the funds. There are now primary districts which includes all those families who send their children to the school, and these primary districts may elect a committee of three of the neighborhood interested in the school, and this committee is authorized to appoint the teacher, visit the school, provide fuel, &c. On this last provision the success of the whole machinery is suspended. The influence that approximates nearest to the school is that which gives it character. If the local or primary committee are competent to determine the qualifications of the teacher, and his fidelity in the office, and if they know what a school ought to be and are determined to make it so, there will be a good school; otherwise, we may have a glorious scheme and a magnificent appropriation, but our children will be unable to read the laws or the vote they cast for the law-makers."

ON TEACHING ARITHMETIC.

Through the medium of your valuable paper, allow me to give to the public the views of one who has had some considerable experience in teaching this important science. We will take the case of some intelligent, cheerful, chubby-faced, little fellow, just entered into a school, the boast of whose master perhaps is, that he adheres to "the good old plan." Suppose him to have mastered the difficulties of spelling-book and reader; also to have made some progress in the formation of pot-hooks and hangers: it is announced to him that it is time for him to begin arithmetic. Every schoolmaster must have noticed the joy with which such communications are invariably received, evidencing the innate thirst for knowledge which exists in the human breast. In this case the bright eye becomes brighter, the red cheeks receive a redder tint; satisfaction manifests itself in every motion. If he has a friend amongst the bigger boys, he communicates the fact to him with glee; the news is sent home, a new era is about to commence; an event is about to happen almost as important as his first entry into buttoned clothes. Bright prospects of higher forms and admiring friends, open to his imagination. How soon, alas, to be obscured! With the materials of which this child is composed, judicious teaching might work wonders; but mark the result—the day arrives, the book is put into his hand. Full of hope and joy he opens to the first page, and here, as if in mockery, he is told, "that arithmetic is the art or science of computing by numbers, and consists both of *theory and practice*." Thinking this rather puzzling, he turns to the second page, and finds exhibited to his wondering eyes huge pyramids, or rather triangles of figures, having their sides composed of numbers from 1 to 9; surmounted by ominous words, billions, millions, and thousands, and having their interior duly filled up with rows of cyphers. Whilst he is meditating on these mysteries, he is summoned by his master, and told that this is his numeration table; that it is necessary he should learn it; that the figures represent large numbers; that the first figures are units, the second tens, and so on; and that the cyphers show the value of figures in different situations: and he is sent to his seat to get it up. The child goes, and after many unsuccessful attempts to understand it, gives it over; and begins to wonder what a million is, and how many millions of apples his next parcel from home will contain. From this time his troubles begin. He passess through the usual routine of the "good old system;" that is to say, he is duly flogged for his stupidity during school-hours, and receives instruction during play-hours from such of his school-fellows as may take pity on him. The effects of such treatment soon become visible; the fire of his eye is quenched, his buoyant youthful spirit becomes cowed down and broken. His arithmetic, once the source of his hope; his master, once the object of his unsuspecting love, are alike hated; malignant feelings find a den in a bosom once the image of its Maker, and purity of soul and confiding affection are supplanted by guilt and revenge. Verily, our ancestors were sensible fellows; no doubt they looked deeper into things than we do. Perhaps they held that science exists latent in our nature (like electricity in the glass cylinder) and only requires the proper degree of friction by cane or ferule to develope its energies.

Having thus sketched some of the beauties of the "good old system" of teaching arithmetic, allow me to offer a few practical observations on the subject. Mathematical science appears to me to be the only one in which no bounds are set to human research; and therefore that for which the mind of man is peculiarly formed. For this reason, I consider that the attempts to teach its first steps, without rendering their principles evident to the mind of the learner, is particularly unnatural and absurd. The modes of operation or *rules*, ought to spring from the child's own resources after his ideas have been rightly directed to self-evident principles. Let him take nothing for granted because wiser heads than his have discovered it. The child's first efforts must be entirely mental; the ideas must precede the notation. It appears to me, that to desire a boy to work an addition sum before he knows what addition is, is as absurd as to desire an infant to write a letter before he can talk. The same remark may be made with regard to the notation of large numbers. There are very few children who can count and comprehend beyond 40 or

50, at the age at which arithmetic is begun; and to this number should their first lesson be confined.

For the sake of illustration, I will suppose myself seated with an audience of little boys. My slate is a small table, my "tutor's assistant" twenty beans. I lay four of my beans on the table. How many are there here? Four, sir. If I lay down one more, how many will there be? Five. Two more? Six. Four more? —some doubt. See here are four, I lay them down; now count. Eight, sir. Two more? Ten. Three more and four more? hesitation —I lay them down. Seventeen. Now two beans and three beans? Five beans. One bean and three beans and two beans? Six beans. Three beans and four beans? Seven beans. Three beans and four beans and six beans? Thirteen. I proceed in this manner, laying down a certain number and increasing them by degrees, till some of my company become rather expert in answering. Now suppose these beans were marbles, how many would four and six make? Here a new idea strikes them;—do the same combinations of beans and of marbles produce the same results? I convince them of it by illustration. Ten. Four boys and six boys? Ten. Four nuts and six nuts? Ten. Thus I lead them to the inference that four and six always make ten, whatever the objects under consideration; and thence of numbers generally. This transition I accomplish by means of illustration and explanation; and then exercise them until they become expert in addition of abstract numbers. I proceed in like manner (mutatis mutandis) with the other simple rules. In multiplication I confine myself to illustration chiefly, showing them that the multiplication table which I teach them orally is of great use; for if you can buy four apples for a penny, it is easier to find the number you can get for sixpence by knowing that six times four are twenty-four, than by saying, four and four, and four and four, and four and four. Likewise if you wish to divide thirty pence among six boys, it is done at once by knowing that six times five make thirty. There are numerous examples of this kind which it would be childish to mention, because every tutor of youth ought to be sufficiently intelligent to see through the ideas of his pupil, and propose his questions accordingly. Those who cannot do this, had better leave their profession, and find employment in something more suited to their intellect. Having exercised them for some time, I must teach them notation; and to insure their cheerful co-operation with my endeavors, I must first (as with the multiplication table) convince them of the necessity, as well as utility, of it. This is easily done, by proposing a succession of numbers, as 10, 7, 6, 4, 3, 2, 5, &c., to be added. They soon find their defect in not being able to keep them in mind; and by calling another boy with his slate and pencil, and proposing the same question, they will be convinced of the utility of his notation. Satisfied of its necessity, they will soon learn it; when notation is learnt, their work becomes easier. I soon carry them through the simple rules. I make use of a black-board and chalk, to work an example now and then, and show them the most approved and economical method of operation. Their lessons are short and varied, and I take care to combine the mental and mechanical parts, so that their ardor seldom flags. As a specimen of the manner of teaching the more advanced rules, which I would adopt; allow me to give you the following example. It is one of the kind usually found in our treatises on arithmetic, following a certain palaver about ratios and terms of proportion; it would appear in their keys beautifully arranged with two dots between the first term and second, and four between the second and third; all which is wisely called the "golden rule," or "rule of three." If 5 yards of cloth cost 11s., what will 16 ells come to? As the cloth is evidently here sold by the yard, it is necessary first to know the number of yards in 16 ells. This they will easily perceive may be done by multiplying by 5, which will bring into quarters; and again dividing by 4, for the yards. Now as 20 is a multiple of 5, it is easily shown them that the price of 20 yards will be 4 times the price of 5 yards, viz. 4 times 11s.; £2. 4s. answer. But if the number of yards was not a multiple of 5, if for instance it was 21, then the most (to them) obvious course of proceeding, would be to find the price of 1 yard, by dividing 11 by 5; and then multiplying by the number of yards. By the aid of the black-board I show them, that this course would be inconvenient, as the price of 1 yard, 2s. 2d. two-fifths, is not easy to multiply; and though it is strictly correct, and would answer in many cases; yet in this they will shorten the operation by multiplying by the number of yards first, and afterwards dividing by 5, without altering the result. I submit that this method of calculation for this and similar questions, is preferable to the common mode by what is called "Rule of Three;" because it is that which presents itself first to the uninstructed mind; because it is that which would be invariably used by a tradesman; because the nature of proportion is, spite of all explanation, a complete mystery to a child of ten or eleven; and because, admitting he understands proportion, it would be almost an utter impossibility for him to deduce the rule himself, which is my grand point, without some knowledge of algebra.

The course of instruction which I would pursue is this. After the simple rules, then practice; in which I would include such examples as that above, vulgar and decimal fractions with extended notation, and then begin algebra. When they have acquired some knowledge of this, I would apply it to questions in proportion, interest, &c.

In conclusion, I beg to say, that whatever plan may be pursued in detail, it can never be effective unless carried out by intelligent teachers; who will take care that the utility of every operation is clearly seen by the pupil, and that the demonstration of every rule *precedes* the practice. None but a lover of mathematical research can appreciate the joy which is felt, when in the midst of some laborious operation, a beautiful and simple truth flashes unexpectedly on the mind; why then should the imposition of cut-and-dried rules prevent such pleasure to a child? Who will say that he does not feel as intensely the pleasure of conquering a difficulty by the force of his own reasoning, as a person conversant with the higher branches of the same science? JUSTITIA.

LEXINGTON, (Ga.) 10th April, 1839.

MR. J. ORVILLE TAYLOR.

Dear Sir,—

I am sure of your sympathy in the pleasure with which I communicate to you that Georgia has at last established a common school system. The organization has just occurred, and one of the first acts of the Board of Commissioners of Oglethorpe County has been, to authorise a subscription of ten dollars for the Common School Assistant. As Secretary of the Board, allow me to request that as many copies of the *current* volume of the Assistant, beginning at the first number, as are furnished for ten dollars, be sent to this post office, addressed to the "Board of Commissioners of Common Schools of Oglethorpe County."

As the remittance of so small a sum by mail would be hazardous, I hope you will deem it prompt pay for me to send the money on by some of our merchants when they visit the city of New York.

Allow me to add, that this subscription of our Board at my instance is an extremely poor expression of my regard for the Common School Assistant. With great respect

Yours, &c.,

W. M. McKINLEY, Secretary.

HISTORICAL CHART.

"Valuable invention for all teachers, learners and general readers of history: history made visible: A magnificent chart, 54 by 27 inches in size; engraved on stone and beautifully colored and varnished, forming a highly useful and ornamental picture, in which all the leading events of Universal History are *embodied and localized int he stream of time*; thus producing on the

mind an effect similar to that of Maps in Geography, or of drawings on Natural History and the arts. By I. Irvine Hitchcock. Philadelphia, 1839.

In this beautiful chart every nation of the earth from the time of the great deluge to the present year, whose written history has reached us, is represented under the similitude of a stream or river; and these streams are so ingeniously used as to present to the eye at one view, the origin, progress, duration, colonizations, revolutions, conquests, ruling powers, and other important historical particulars of the nations represented.

The chronological reckoning is exhibited in reference to the Creation (according to the Hebrew text) the birth of Christ, (backward and forward) the building of Rome, the Olympiad and the Hegira or flight of Mahomet.

This chart is a decidedly successful effort to create a PICTURE OF HISTORY, in which the spectator sees at a glance, as in a cosmorama, all the nations of the earth arranged collaterally and chronologically. Besides its utility, the work has great beauty to recommend it as an ornament in the study, the school room, and even the parlor.

It has been liberally patronized by divines and other professional gentleman, by the heads of families, and by colleges, academies, and schools; in all of which it will be found highly advantageous in making a strong and durable impression on the mind and memory through the eye. Mr. Geo. Combe the Phrenologist, A. D. Bache, President of Girard college, Prof. Parke of the University of Pennsylvania, Bishop Doane of New Jersey, Dr. Anthon, of Columbia college, and many other eminent men have adopted it and recommended the use of it to the public.—The work may be had from the author, North Ninth st. Philadelphia. It may also be seen and procured at the book store of Henry Perkins, 134 Chesnut st., Philadelphia, and in New York at that of R. Lockwood, 411 Broadway near Canal st. We add most cordially our own recommendation of the work to all who desire its powerful aid. We will supply orders for it.—Price, $6.

NEW WORKS ON EDUCATION.

MEANS AND ENDS, OR SELF-TRAINING.—This is the title of a new work on education, by Miss C. M. Sedgwick, the popular author of "Poor Rich Man," "Home," "Hope Leslie," &c. We have only space in this number to say we have read it with much pleasure. It is dedicated to the young women of our country—and in the words of the author we add our wish that her address may reach all. "You, my young friends who are conveyed in your fathers' coaches to the spacious apartments of a city boarding school, and you, my dear little girls, who trudge up and down the rugged steeps of our hill country to the secluded district school house."

THE SCHOOL TEACHERS 'MANUAL.—Containing practical suggestions, on teaching and Popular Education. By Henry Dunn, Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, London.

Prepared for publication in this country with a preface by T. H. Gallaudett.

This work has just been published by Messrs. Reed and Barber, Hartford, Ct. The character of the American editor, is a sufficient guarantee for the excellence of the work. For sale at this office.

"HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY FOR THE USE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. *By Charles A. Lee, M. D.* late Professor of Materia Medica and Medical Jurisprudence in the University of the city of New-York." Published by the American Common School Union—oct. p p. 340.

The above work, has just passed to a second Stereotype Edition, and has been almost entirely re-written. It now contains 340 pages octavo, and more than one hundred wood cuts. It has been pronounced by qualified judges, the best work extant on the subject of Physiology for schools. The Expositor of this city, one of the ablest and most independent critical journals of the day, speaks of it as being "so comprehensive in its general views, so accurate in its details, and so little loaded with technical terms, that it cannot fail to rank the author's name high in the scale of public benefactors." The editor also remarks that "the style of Dr. Lee's work is exceedingly popular, its matter sound, and it has the strong recommendation that while the facts are clearly and plainly stated, the obvious application is ordinarily left to the common sense of the reader."

It is now used as the text book in the Grammar School of Columbia College, and many other Seminaries of high standing.

SMILEY'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA OF GEOGRAPHY, *and a beautifully executed Atlas, illustrative of the work*, has been placed upon our table. We have devoted some attention to the examination of this system, and we have no hesitation in saying that it possesses merits of superior character. It is decidedly the best work of the kind that has ever come under our notice. The methodicial arrangement of the various subjects on which it treats—the fidelity to nature, and the neatness of execution, of the numerous engravings—the beauty and correctness of the maps, and the superiority of the mechanical execution of the work, cannot fail to attract the notice of any observer.

We are pleased to see that the author has introduced several new, important and useful features in his work, among which are cuts illustrative of the peculiar botany and zoology of every country. These interesting subjects have been too much neglected in the work now in use.

This superior system is highly recommended by competent and experienced teachers, whose opportunities for judging of the merits of such a work, entitles their opinion to more weight than our own.—*Wheeling Times.*

THE GIRL'S READING BOOK; IN PROSE AND POETRY; FOR SCHOOLS, *by Mrs. L. H. Sigourney.*—This book is designed for the younger classes of readers and is filled with original articles prepared by the gifted author. The articles both prose and poetry are written in the rich, chaste, fervid language, which Mrs. S. uses with so much skill in other productions, and there is a pleasant variety in style, subject, and sentiment which must render it a delightful book to the teacher and the pupil.—*Maine School Visiter.*

GREEK LESSONS—*By Charles Anthon, LL. D.*—Every thing that a school book ought to be—an introductory school book, especially. Perfectly easy, even to the dullest—admirably well arranged—explanatory in the highest—it will do more to render the study of Greek easy, and because easy, popular and general, than all the grave quartos of all the richly endowed and pompous universities in the world. Published by Harper & Brothers.

LIBRARIES.

It is understood, doubtless, by every district in the State, that $110,000 was divided among the Common Schools in the State of New York, last January; and that each district *must* apply its share of this money in purchasing a library. That the best possible library may be procured, the Society for the Diffusion of Knowledge have published one of fifty volumes, put up in a book case, (which also answers as a box to convey the books to the district,) the cost of which is $20. Any district can be supplied with this library by sending to the subscriber an order and $20.*

J. ORVILLE TAYLOR,
Secretary of the A. Com. School Society,
128 Fulton Street, New York.

*Any individual, or school out of the State, can be furnished with this library, by applying as above.

We have lately noticed in the papers the death of Zera Colburn, the great *juvenile* mathematician. His wonderful faculty of calculating appeared at the age of six years, and it was supposed he would attain great eminence as a mathematician. Every facility was afforded him for an education, but the anticipations of his friends were not realized. His great powers of calculation seemed to fail him before he was twenty years old. He became a Baptist clergyman but was by no means distinguished for talents.